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ABSTRACT

This handbook was written as a tool to acquaint teachers and trainers with the numerous existing programs to train the under-educated adult. Part I: People and Programs deals with looking at clients in Adult Basic Education programs and becoming acquainted with some Federal efforts in the field. Part II: Approaches to Teaching the Undereducated deals with some approaches to teaching those clients identified in Part I. Part III: Material Preparation deals very lightly with the making of materials. (Author/NF)

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A HANDBOOK FOR ADULT BASIC EDUCATION TEACHER TRAINERS

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CONTENTS

Introduction iv

Part One: People and Programs

Chapter 1: A Cross-Sectional Look at Students Involved in Literacy Programs . . . 1

Chapter 2: A Look at Some Federal Programs for Literacy Education 15

Part Two: Approaches to Teaching the Undereducated

Chapter 3: Why Have a Diagnostic Approach to Teaching Adults? 31

Chapter 4: Methods and Materials for Teaching Reading 42

Chapter 5: Specific Techniques for Teaching Reading 63

Chapter 6: Specific Techniques for Teaching Arithmetic 79

Chapter 7: Specific Techniques for Teaching Writing and Spelling 93

Part Three: Material Preperation

Chapter 8: Preparation of Literacy Materials . 112

Bibliography 127

Introduction

"Adult Basic Education must be more than mere literacy training." This statement has been made at least a hundred times to some audience by every practitioner and professional in the field. Yet, a look at most of the programs that exist may be found operating contrary to the present philosophy of what the ABE program should be about. The term "literacy" has been used very freely in this document - not to offend my colleagues, but to emphasize that to assist participants in becoming literate or more literate is still one of the purposes of the ABE program. The writer has purposefully left out sections regarding citizenship education, political education, social studies and related disciplines. This has not been done because these disciplines are at low priority levels and because the focus of this document is not on social action. Again, this is not to be apologetic, but the writer feels that to approach these disciplines in the abbreviated form that the contents of this

book have been covered would be a grave injustice to the present efforts in the field.

There are too many sociological assumptions about behavior, characteristics, attitudes, aspirations, etc. about this country's under-educated that are very insulting to the population in reference. Therefore, the attempt here has been to look at those methods that have generally worked across the board and not get hung up on the "these people" bit.

The individual in society today is hampered seriously when he does not have the training necessary to read, write, and compute numbers; however, he is hampered just as seriously when he can only read, write, and compute numbers.

The Ph.D. that is not actively concerned or who is afraid to be actively concerned with influencing his life outside of his academic cubicle could profit immensely from a good ABE program. To vote, to chose sides, and try to influence others, and to help someone who is less fortunate to many is pretty "Basic". This might suggest that we have talked about the Adult and his Basic Education in the same breadth and yet fragmented it in reality.

Presently, programs reach from one end of the continuum to the other, some are too "Basic" to be education and others are too "Educational" to be basic. There must be a marriage here.

Therefore, the concern for the under-educated in the black belt of Alabama must be to balance programs where participants will become proficient in the 3 R's, but also become aware of those forces that control their lives. This document is not a program, it is a tool that can be used by practitioners, educators, students in the field, and others in helping with a particular segment of a program - the literacy segment.

This book has been written in three parts: Part I (Chapters 1 and 2) deals with looking at the clients in ABE programs and becoming acquainted with some Federal efforts in the field. Part II (Chapters 3-7) deals with some approaches to teaching those clients identified in Part I and Part III (Chapter 9) deals very lightly with the making of materials.

Aside from being a "cookbook" for teachers, this handbook should serve as a tool to acquaint teachers and trainers with the multiplicity of programs that now exist

to train the under-educated adult. Due to the fact that each center has its own personality because of the make up of its staff and clientel, this manual should also aid them in understanding the differences that will be existing within the project.

PART I

PEOPLE AND PROGRAMS

CHAPTER I

A Cross-Sectional Look at Students
Involved in Literacy Programs.

The student in ABE or literacy programs differs from town to town, state to state, or even from center to center in a multi-center program. Therefore, generalities about the ABE participant must be made with discretion. People who take part in an adult literacy program have the same similarities and differences that the rest of us have. They are individuals who have for some reason or other been left out educationally whether by chance or by choice.

Understanding the above, certain general statements may be made. It is reasonable to break the ABE/literacy student into several major groups. They are: Rural workers (migrant and seasonal), Inner-City Uneducated, Mexican Americans, Indians, Appalachians, Prison, and School drop-outs anywhere.

Appalachian ABE Student

The most complete information regarding a profile of

the different type ABE/literacy students is found in a West Virginia study. This study found that the great majority of the participants were from very rural backgrounds. Eighty-two percent of the persons surveyed were raised in areas having a population of less than one thousand persons. More than one-half of the participants described the area in which they were raised as being a farm. Only six percent of the participants were raised in areas with a population range of 1,000 to 4,999 persons, while only seven percent of 4,912 persons were raised in communities of five thousand or more persons.

Most of the participants came from very large families. Two-thirds of the students had five or more brothers and sisters. Almost one-half of the 4,912 persons had seven or more brothers and sisters. Only 29 percent were reported as being raised in a family of fewer than six children (counting themselves). Only three percent were reported as being "an only child".

The educational level of the participants' parents was very low. More than one-half of the students reported that their mother had less than a tenth grade education,

while 49 percent reported the same for their father. Only three percent of the students reported that one or more of their parents had completed a high school education. Many students did not know the educational level of their parents. The great majority of the students reported that their father had earned his livelihood through some unskilled occupation. Most of the fathers of the participants were either farmers or miners.

Only 10 percent of the 4,912 participants in this study were classified as being employed by business or industry. Twenty-three percent of the students reported that they had been able to maintain steady employment for a period of ten years or longer. One-tenth of the participants reported that their longest period of steady employment was less than one year. Forty percent of the students stated that the longest they had held a steady job had not exceeded four years.

The two most frequently mentioned reasons for participants enrolling in Adult Basic Education classes were related to employment and acquisition of an education.

Thirty-six percent of the students said they enrolled "to get more education". The same percentage of students mentioned motivation for employment or better employment as the main reason for their participation in Adult Basic Education.

A syndrome of geographical, sociological, psychological, and financial reasons caused participants to originally drop out of school and terminate their formal education. The fact that the overwhelming majority of participants were raised in very rural settings probably caused educational opportunities to be rather limited or at least not easily accessible. The fact that many of the participants were raised in very rural areas and in large families probably dictated that much of their time be used to help maintain farms and/or in some manner, contribute to the economic livelihood of their family. The fact that most participants' parents were under-educated probably had a psychological impact on the value or emphasis many of them placed on education. It was also suspected that what education the participants were exposed to had little relevance or applicability to daily lives

of many of them. The reason which participants most frequently mentioned for quitting school was to go to work. Other findings of the study attest to the fact that the families in which the participants were raised probably suffered economically. The fact that the families were large, the parents were under-educated, and the fathers of the participants were unskilled and earned a living in unskilled occupations all contributed to their financial plight. No doubt, all of the aforementioned reasons affected the opportunity, interest, and aspirations the participants had for acquiring an education (16)

Rural Workers

Rural workers who attend ABE classes are mostly in two groups. These groups are migrant workers and seasonal farm workers. Both groups, in most cases, have been economically, academically, and culturally isolated from the mainstream of the human society.

The seasonal farm worker is that group of workers who usually work on farms during the soil preparation and the planting periods - with a lull in work during the maturation stages of plants - and again during the harvest season.

A classical example is a farm worker in the Mississippi Delta who usually starts working in late February or early March - depending on the weather condition - breaking the land and putting down fertilizer and weed control chemicals. The planting period starts in mid-April and continues to the cultivating time when the young plants start to break the crust of the soil. From this time to mid-July, it is cultivating and weeding (chopping or hoeing) the fields. Usually, the chief crops of cotton and soybeans are in their final stages of growth and too large to allow very much soil turning without affecting the growth. They are also at the stages where they become dominate and the minor weeds are not a threat any longer. This means the farm workers are usually out of work until late August or early September when the crops have then matured for harvesting. The harvest season lends itself to fewer workers than other seasons because it is done by highly sophisticated machines. The large plantation owners have almost completely mechanized the harvest, and only the small 1-family farmers still depend on hand labor for harvest. Some small farmers also hire commercial harvesters to gather his crops. Many times commercial harvesters take the role of migrants - harvesting crops in Texas,

Missouri and then in Mississippi.

The seasonal farm worker, many times, works for several employers when he maintains residence in the small towns nearby. However, the larger plantation owners usually have some type of marginal dwelling facilities for his "Blue Ribbon" employees which he is apt to provide some type of employment in the lean season to make sure they are there when needed. These workers usually have little or no education and are the last of the group who did not have the nerve or finances to relocate or migrate to Chicago. They are mostly characterized by having large families and they tend to have conceded defeat for themselves but have high aspirations for their children. It is not rare to see an entire family rally to the support of a son or daughter/brother or sister in college. A very high percentage of the children of seasonal farm workers are now attending college, have professional jobs, and some are entertainers as well as professional athletes.

In many cases, they are people who are not afraid of long hours and hard work. Many of the men, in fact, are World War II veterans.

The migrant workers are different from the seasonal farm workers because they usually travel from state to state to catch the harvesting work. This of course, is dictated by the length of the growing season and can usually start in Florida and go north - all the way to areas near the Canadian border and return. They mostly live in camps in sub-marginal living conditions, i.e., old buses, panel trucks, tents, etc. The typical migrant worker is part of a large crew which is paternalistically tied to the crew chief. This is especially true of the black migrant. White and Mexican-American migrants often travel in family groups. The black migrant is many times an unwedded woman with several children or a male who has left his family to find some form of employment.

Another of the major differences of migrant workers from seasonal farm workers is that they do not have the choice for stability that the seasonal farm worker has; therefore, a good education for their children is, to a great extent, impossible. However, there are many who dump the stream and drop out in cities along the way and in some cases, stay on with farm owners as seasonal farm workers.

To date, according to all reports, the migrant worker is the most exploited laborer in the country. He is most often dependent on the mercy of the crew leader and farm owner (grower) for survival. Their one hope has been exposures of their plight by mass media, particularly via T.V. specials, CBS in 1960 and NBC in 1970.

The School Drop-Out Anywhere

The school drop-out as an ABE participant is a very different breed from all other ABE participants. He is that person who was somehow turned off by the school system and decided that he had had enough - he was "fed up". Many times he took odd jobs, i.e., packaging at supermarkets, service station attendants, etc. - immediately after dropping out, and that took care of his needs. Later when he became married or realized that this type employment is strictly at the survival level and the ones who were getting ahead were those with diplomas and degrees, he turns to education to redeem himself and re-map his earning/learning road.

Indian Program

The Indian programs are very different in that they are all still holding to their language and show no desire

to become total submerged by the WASP culture. Their programs are mostly financed by BIA (Bureau of Indian Affairs) in the Department of Interior. The Indian ABE participants are less interested in becoming culturally identified with the mainstream of the United States than probably any other minority group. Their programs are usually centered around some specific service for the group - like health needs. It is a fair implication, of course , of what ABE is supposed to be about.

Profile of the Student of English As A Second Language In An ABE Setting In Des Moines, Iowa.

There are no easy generalizations that can be made about the clients of ABE programs that are learning English as a second language.

First, many such students should not properly be placed in ABE setting since they have come to the United States with the necessary reading and computation skills and need only to transfer these skills to the symbol system of English. However, at times, these students are placed with ABE students, which can be an affront to their own educational background.

Aside from the student directly immigrating from abroad, there are three subcultures in the United States whose members may require instruction in English as a second language: the Mexican, the Puerto Rican and the Cuban.

The Cuban, most often, will come from a family that was of the middle class or the upper reaches of the lower class in Cuba. The Puerto Rican most often comes from urban slums of San Juan and Ponce.

There are numbers of values which are said to pervade Latin American culture (fatalism, machismo, etc.) which differ from values held by the majority of Americans. A typical example of these values is the Mexican culture. Mexicans of all stations in life adhere strongly to these values and take a great deal of pride in their culture.

In Iowa, Mexicans, although many are functionally illiterate, have attained a comfortable standard of living working as railroad repair crews. Combined with a reluctance to learn English, which is seen as a threat to their value system. There is also an unwillingness to put their self-esteem on the line by participating in

programs that include the economically disadvantaged.

The Incarcerated ABE Student: Traits and Characteristics of the Offender

Most members of an offender population have been economically deprived for the greater parts of their lives. One Draper trainee's home, in which we visited, closely resembled a chicken coop and was complemented by the oft-dipicted "outhouse" which served the family, however inadequately, as a restroom. In homes such as this one, it is not uncommon to find that several members of the family sleep in the same room, some of them on the floor. Circumstances which have led members of such an environment to accept middle-class standards are the unusual; more often, their social and moral values are strictly those of the lower class of society. Prostitution is common and there is little or no stigma attached to incest which occurs frequently, especially among in-laws.

The offender is usually as educationally deficient as he is economically deprived. One sometimes has difficulty in discerning whether the lackadaisical achievement of the typical inmate is the result of his being

educationally deprived or mentally or emotionally retarded. One 18-year old boy, whom we had in training, appeared to be retarded in every way. When he first came to prison, he was unable to read or write. Occasions on which he even spoke to anyone was rare for he isolated himself from other inmates. The boy appeared to be so emotionally distrubed that he was incapable of responding to those who tried to communicate with him. He would not answer questions asked him, nor would he work in class. Ordinarily, this student would have been given up as hopeless and completely uneducable, but something happened which might be considered by some as a miracle. For the first time in the boy's life, someone became interested enough to patiently guide him through the struggle of learning to read and write.

To keep this student working was a difficult job, but as he improved in his ability to read and write, his emotional disturbance gradually decreased. He even learned some elementary arithmetic before he was finally paroled to a vocational rehabilitation workshop where he was able to work and, for another <u>first time</u> in his life, earned a small amount of money.

Often, a student from a poverty--stricken background was found to have a very low I.Q. when tested, not because he was mentally retarded, but because he had not been exposed to the middle-class values and knowledge that are assumed to be in the makeup of most mental maturity examinations. (10)

The inner city under-educated is very much different from the other groups discussed. One of the major differences is that many persons who attend ABE classes in the inner city are neither poor not jobless. According to John Rosser, an administrative officer for the Washington, D.C. ABE program, many persons who attend ABE classes have good paying jobs with tenure, own homes, have educated or are educating their children, and are generally economically secured. They hold government jobs at certain levels and have had them for some time, yet, they do not have academic training that would satisfy requirements for eighth grade and GED certificate. The above clients, of course, do not represent the total ABE population in the inner city. The inner city illiterates or under-educated adult is found in many groups - The

Work Incentive Program, the Manpower Development and Training Act Programs, the Public School Adult Programs, and a variety of volunteer organizations. This person may be a welfare recipient or have a good-paying job; he may be employed at a level and wish to change jobs; or he may need academic training for a low level supervisor's job where he is presently employed. The inner city category has far more differences from within than any other group discussed.

The cases in point do not proclaim to state 100% accuracy, the profiles of ABE/literacy program participants, but do show to a great degree of accuracy, the similarities and differences among the under-educated adults of this country.

CHAPTER II

A Look at Some Federal Programs for Literacy Education

The present variety of agencies that are intensifying their efforts to alleviate illiteracy in this country is appalling, yet the number of illiterates by count and by percentage in this country is frightening. During the years since 1964 (OEO) and 1966 (HEW) when broad legislation was enacted to attack this problem, many persons have attended programs, yet too many are left untouched. No matter how you classify illiteracy, whether it is done by grade level completed or by the ability to function by observing or performing on standardized measuring instruments, we still have too much illiteracy. Our ability to touch those that need touching most is marginal. According to Cy Houle in a recent speech, only about 3% of the illiterates in this country are now being helped through the multiplicity of programs in the field. Yet, according to Hyman Hoffman of AEA's research office, in a recent interview, "There are 16 different types of federally funded programs to deal with the problem of literacy".

These programs vary in scope and content and they have reached varying degrees of success, depending on the objectives they have set for themselves.

Presently, there are so many private groups, churches and others who are devoting some efforts to adult literacy programs of some type, there is no way of either counting the number of programs or the number of persons involved.

This writer must conclude, as Dr. Edwin Smith did, with the following statements:

> The local programs are so variant that it is difficult to classify them. Some take the form of day schools structured similarly to the traditional elementary school, although the materials are designed for under-educated adults rather than for children. Others offer night classes which meet for two to three days a week. These classes are usually closer to the old literacy concept than to that of ABE. Still others meet for three hours, five days a week. No one pattern of organization is dominant. (11)

Dr. Smith's suggestion that programs use "materials" and techniques that are for "under-educated adults" refers to the ideal or as programs should be. But to his dismay, and many other trainers of teachers in ABE and evaluators for ABE programs, they continue to operate with methods and approaches that have failed in childhood education with identical personnel and materials, i.e., discarded

state adopted texts, retired teachers, etc.

The variety of program approaches to the problem of illiteracy in this country suggest two major points: (1) there is no answer as to how it should be done and (2) who should do it. Therefore, this writer is seriously against present federal efforts to again put all of the eggs in one basket regarding educating the illiterate adults, especially when this "basket has no bottom and a rotten handle that has already resulted in the loss of many good eggs". To change the name of a bureau, if the purpose and level of implementation are traditional, does little to alter the old line delivery of services. This means that to recapture those forced out of school because of the faults of the system, instead of the individual, is, for all practical purposes, impossible.

Most readers are familiar with OEO's legislation that was designed to carry the programs straignt to the clientele and by-pass certain Regional and State Political subdivisions to some degree. Other traditional cabinet level agencies such as, HEW, Department of Labor, HUD, etc., now have certain special effort projects where the money

is given directly to local groups. This money for the most part is labeled as Research and Demonstration money, or experimental project money. Each bureau funds its traditional agencies, but has limited funds to seek new innovations in the area of literacy education. These programs are now becoming very popular amidst an unfair amount of protest and spirits of non-tolerance by state agencies.

Delta Opportunities Corporation

Delta Opportunities Corporation got its initial funding from the Migrant Office of OEO to do housing, ABE, and prevocational training. The DOC program was a very comprehensive approach to dealing with all those forces that are enemies in the "war on poverty". Aside from the initial funding, the program was expanded to include many related spin-offs with funds from various agencies. It was a first effort to follow President Johnson's decree to seek interagency cooperation where applicable. This resulted in the receiving of experimental funds from HEW to tie with the more relaxed funds of OEO to expand the program from a central office near Greenville, Mississippi, to reach clients in the backwoods of nine (9) Mississippi

Delta and Delta related counties. This program would send teams of one (1) professional and four (4) para-professionals into communities for a 60-day period to train para-professionals and professional volunteers to continue the programs. Program participants would receive travel stipends. The para-professional that continued in the center was given a subsistent stipend also. The travel money and staff personnel money came from the HEW grant while the stipends were part of the original OEO package. Besides the above programs, the DOC program operated Job Development and Placement Service with the Department of Commerce Funds; Emergency Food Programs, Regional OEO Funds; Heavy Equipment Operation and Maintenance, Department of Commerce Funds; Special Literacy Programs sponsored by Church Women United; Community Center Southern Presbyterian funds; Day Care Migrant Office of OEO; Migrant Food and Health, Migrant Research funds; Food Stamps and Emergency Assistance - Delta Ministry funds, and provided technical assistance services of all kinds to other programs in the Delta, throughout Mississippi and other states.

The DOC program used housing as a basis for economic development, although it was instrumental in the founding of the Delta Foundation that received nearly a million dollars in Special Impact Funds from Title I-D money of OEO. This program worked on the premises of upgrading the entire family.

Adams-Jefferson Improvement Corporation's Manpower Program

The AJICMP organization is very comprehensive in scope. It deals with ABE training, pre-vocational training, and sales and cashier training, and a variety of economic development components. Pre-vocational training is in the building trades of carpentry, bricklaying, interior decorating, plumbing and residential wiring. The economic development ventures are based around three components - agriculture, youth, and educational units. These components now have been chartered and operate independently from the mother corporation, AJIC. The agricultural component has pulled together small farmers and organized them into a vegetable producing corporation. The youth component has formed a corporation that centers its money-making ventures around such youth activities as dancing and snacking.

The educational units component trains women to make toys and novelties of educational value. The money for the AJIC program comes from the Research and Demonstration Office of OEO.

Systematic Training and Re-Development, Incorporated

The STAR program is a statewide multi-purpose program sponsored by the Catholic Church with headquarters in Jackson, Mississippi. The programs of STAR are additional attempts to work on the problems of poverty and illiteracy simultaneously. The STAR components are as follows: Adult Education (ABE and GED); Emergency Food and Medical; Consumer Action and Financial Counseling; and Economic Development. The program is jointly funded by OEO and the Department of Labor. (13)

Quitman County Center for Learning and Educational Development

This project is a special funded experimental project funded by HEW to approach ABE from the use of "homemade" materials. The staff has developed some highly sophisticated learning devices that speak the vernacular of the clientele. The program has shown remarkable holding power (Smith - Martin, 1971), although the setting is completely rural. Better than 75% of the persons who enter, complete

the course. (1) This of course, is far better than the 50% of state programs in states like New York and Missouri. (8) The other efforts of the project were as the name suggested, educational development. The project is now seeking funds to establish a center for mentally retarded children.

Armchair Adult Education Program - A Branch of Opportunities Industrialization Center, Incorporated

The AAE 10-week course structure and content are designed to reach those ordinarily repelled by more academic routine.

Instead of the compulsory attendance once required by schools, which obviously left them ill, these students become a small band of volunteers gathering in a comfortable atmosphere. Instead of predetermined study courses, from which there can be no deviation, they are encouraged to pursue their own interests - fundamental math and reading skills can be transmitted through any number of topics serving as conduits. Instead of teachers trained to meet incomprehensible norms, they are given as little direct verbal instruction as possible by a group leader who is sharing their life styles.

Professional instructors have appeared not to comprehend that the things these students most need to learn are

things which everybody else knows. Within the AAE experience, the person most capable of teaching those things is someone who has had to learn them the same way.

Of seventeen (17) instructors, or group leaders, on staff at the end of the program year, at least three had never received a high school diploma, although their abilities to evoke student-enthusiasm ranked with the ablest. As in recruitment, minimally-trained, but highly motivated non-professional group leaders have proven to be not only effective, but the only persons able to help them to meet and surpass AAE program goals.

Group leaders are selected from student ranks, OIC personnel files and word-of-mouth referrals from staff members. Their teaching abilities derive less from academic achievement than from their skills at reaching effective rapport with the students.

Instructors receive 15 hours of training in AAE philosophy, methodology, lesson planning and group discussion techniques. Three supervisory instructors and a curriculum specialist comprise the professionally accredited core staff who convene periodic seminars, occasionally visit

classes and are on call for consultation with group leaders.

Although the 10-week course length was initially an arbitrary designation, it has been found an ideal segment of time in which to fulfill AAE instruction and motivational goals.

Attendance usually stabilizes by the third class meeting, although it is always affected by change in the instructor or host. First week attendance figures ordinarily increase by half if a mood of constructive action is generated and recruiters hunt down laggards. Often, the host draws upon his personal circle of friends on the block for benefit of the class roll.

Testing for reading and math levels is given at the third meeting; organization of a community project starts at the fourth meeting; planning for future individual involvement beyond the AAE program begins at the fifth meeting.

Curriculum objectives include recognition, review and practice of reading and arithmetic skills; good consumer practices; exposure to the number and accomplishments of black leaders; the indivisibility of civil rights organizations from their Afro-American heritage and information

on other minority groups. Since it is the student who has designated the subject and subject matter, it is the subject matter itself and not the instructor that solicits concentration and effort.

Every reading lesson aims at developing a liking for reading through thought development, memory training, vocabulary building, inference and imagery recognition, separating fact from opinion, sensitivity to moods, logical organization of thoughts, outline development, matching ideas with details, summarizing, and flexibility of reading speed for skimming, study or pleasure purposes.

Every arithmetic lesson includes problems in addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, fractions, mixed numbers and word problems.

In both reading and math , each student works at his own level and at his own speed for 30 to 40 minutes per three hour class. The lessons are complete, each of them independent from the next week's lesson so that maximum satisfaction can be derived in its completion.

Many of these lessons are incorporated into two other subject topics such as, minority history and consumer practices. The ABE materials in

these study areas have been tailored to students' consensus. (9)

The above project is a very exciting project; it is funded on an experimental basis by the Office of Education, HEW.

There are many other projects federally funded that could be mentioned. The ones mentioned were listed here because of their uniqueness in scope and effort on the comprehensive approach by integrating literacy programs with other efforts to fight poverty.

Southern Regional Education Board

The SREB does not operate an ABE program in the traditional sense. It teaches those who teach the illiterates. These type efforts were of paramount importance as more and more money is being put into ABE. There must be someone to assist with the training and development of these programs. The SREB spreads its services to eight (8) states: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina and Tennessee. Its first year accomplishments were as follows:

> Sixteen institutions of higher education participated in project activities through course offerings, degree programs, workshops & seminars.

Thirteen of these, colleges and universities, established adult education divisions for the first time, including one predominantly black institution in each state.

Sixteen programs leading to masters, sixth-year certificates and doctorates were added to six already existing, a 226 percent increase, and 19 additional ones are planned.

Twenty-nine full-time adult education faculty members were employed by participating institutions.

Sixteen graduate students actively participated in both university program activities, and assisted the state department of education in providing in-service training to local ABE personnel.

Sixty-one graduate and undergraduate courses were added, and an additional 33 planned.

Two thousand, nine hundred and seventy-one (2,971) students enrolled in credit courses offered on-campus, off-campus and by extension, or through seven two-week institutes held at six universities.

Seven thousand, eight hundred teachers, nearly 90% of the Southeast's Adult Basic Education staff, attended courses, institutes, seminars and workshops to receive supplementary training.

Four thousand, seven hundred and thirty-five teachers and supervisors attended more than 118 seminars and workshops to begin regular in-service training for ABE personnel.

Three hundred and thirty-seven ABE classes and programs were visited by college and university

staff, who provide assistance in instruction and material selection.

Teacher trainer teams were established in two of the six states to provide training in selected geographical areas.

Cooperative university, state department of education and local coordinator planning teams to schedule in-service experiences were instituted in two other states.

Responsibility for developing on-going professional training plans was assumed in all states, either by the Adult Education director or a member of his staff.

Four hundred local ABE programs, state department of education and institutional personnel attended three regional seminars to examine the staff development process and discuss inputs for individual state plans.

Seventeen teachers of the ABE program for the blind or visually handicapped were trained at two specialized institutes.

A twelve member research panel representing a range of academic disciplines and each participating state was established to evaluate the project. (12)

The writer feels that the SREB project or projects of its kind are essential parts of literacy programs.

In an interview with Regional and National Adult Education officials in the Office of Education, the writer found that the priorities in the region will be centered around another effort similar to the SREB project;

it is the establishing of a $1,000,000 reading laboratory that will supplement both present teacher training and research activities.

Correctional Programs

For many years, the incarcerated person was slavishly treated irrespective of the offense. This trend is vastly shifting on paper in many prisons and correctional institutions. It is also shifting in reality in others. Earlier in this document, experimental and demonstration projects were mentioned. A rare but important experiment and demonstration project is in a correctional institution:

> The experiences described...occurred in an experimental demonstration project which is operated under a contract with the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, U.S. Department of Labor, under the authority of the Manpower Development and Training Act.
>
> The Draper project, which has been in operation since September of 1964, serves an incarcerated youthful offender population which may be described as society's "disadvantaged youth", particularly from the standpoint of employability. Its purpose is to provide a special program for the selection, counseling, testing, assessment, training, placement, and follow-up of inmates whose variety of problems prevent their profiting from conventional programs in vocational training. Programmed instruction and several allied training methods are being developed and used to instruct the inmates in an effort to overcome their defeatist attitudes and to reduce the vocational training time without sacrifice to quality or quantity. (10)

The Draper group concluded that the teacher's role in program instruction was three-fold; that of a "friend, doctor, and manager".

There are other programs as suggested by Smith (11) in Literacy Education for Adolescents and Adults whose primary concern is raising the academic skill level of the participant and assisting him with the variety of skills and resources that will allow him to be a full participating member of society.

PART II

APPROACHES TO TEACHING

THE UNDER-EDUCATED

CHAPTER III

Why Have A Diagnostic Approach To Teaching Adults?

The writer wishes to make an early acknowledgement relating to the research materials sampled for this presentation. Much of the materials, references, and/or research dealing with diagnosing the learner's needs have been primarily designed for dealing with children. This is not to renew the argument that adults learn differently or similarly to children, but rather to suggest that there could be some differences in conclusions that must be normed, etc., when using similar approaches with adults and children. This writer has also found more materials relating to diagnosis that were strictly for reading than any other subject matter. There will be certain arbitrary transfers of content ideas from reading to other subjects based on rational judgement and not research.

The authorities in the field generally agree that the major reasons for diagnosis are to determine the following:

1. Student's potential ability to read

2. Present instructional level

3. Specific reading defects to be corrected

The writer feels that items 1 and 3 above should be read as follows:

1. Student's potential ability to do an academic task; i.e., read, write, arithmetic, spell, etc.

3. Specific learning defects to be corrected

The writer has assumed the position that the reasons for diagnosis in any subject matter area should be very similar to those reasons in reading. The writer further concludes that many other elements mentioned relative to reading can be paramount in dealing with other subjects. The elements referred to will be discussed later in this chapter are Instructional Level, Independent Level, and Frustrational Level; however, at this point, the writer will give Della-Piana's professional definition as to "what is diagnosis?" He suggests:

> Literally speaking, the word diagnosis means to "know between". To diagnose is to determine the nature of a process by examining in some detail the differences between the functioning of various parts of the process. A diagnostic reading test breaks down a person's performance into two or more seperate skills so that strengths and weaknesses are revealed. Thus, a diagnostic test has more

> instructional value than a single-score survey test. While the single-score test helps identify pupils who need special attention, the diagnostic test points up those skill deficiencies which should become the focus of instruction.
>
> The major purpose of a reading diagnosis is to gather information that may be helpful in making treatment decisions. The treatment may involve further diagnosis by the reading diagnostician, referral to other specialist for diagnosis and treatment, or directly setting up and carrying out a remediation program. Decisions about what information to seek in a diagnosis come out quite differently when focused on treatment than when not so focused. (5)

The reader will note that again the author quoted was referring to reading diagnosis.

Attention now is again focused on the several levels of student achievement. The statements were originally meant for reading but have been paraphrased here to include all subjects.

The Instructional Level is as follows:

1. Where teaching is most effective, learning takes place without an excessive amount of assistance or with a minimal amount of assistance.
2. Students can do academic tasks 90% of the time.

The Independent Level is one where students rarely encounter a new learning situation, does task smoothly,

no difficulties in comprehension - generally one level below Instructional.

The Frustrational Level (one or two levels above Instructional Level) student misses many parts of tasks, works very slowly, and comprehends very little.

Some Good Common Sense

Too many programs in working with adults have commenced the instructional program by simply finding out from participants what grade they last attended in school, which at its best has little or no validity. There are a multitude of questions to answer from these, i.e., how long has it been? What type of school? What type of student was the individual, etc. Even knowing the above, little is available to actually initiate an instructional program. There are too many unknowns about the population to be instructed. It may further be noted that if in education, we are to be true to our oft song psychological belief that individuals are different, we should not think about the instructional population but individuals within that population. Therefore, we must look to diagnostic powers to make some sense out of our instructional efforts. This

could be looked at, as Aristotle did, a tragedy having a "beginning", a"middle" and an "end". The beginning is that point where we start, the middle has something before and then something after, the end had something before and nothing after. We have to start some place, we must have some ways to get where we are going and we must be going somewhere. Few persons would like to go to a doctor with a group of relatives or friends to seek medical assistance with the doctor treating the entire group on the basis of a questionnaire taken by a receptionist that simply told when the last time you had been to a doctor and the nature of the illness. What if the doctor's medical experience had been with teeth, feet, or the male or female sexual glands, - his treatment of the group could be tragic not to mention his prejudiced views forcing his own academic work experience. The above may be far-fetched, but are we not doing the same thing academically or educationally when we let a math teacher begin teaching a group of illiterates the first time he sees them without proper diagnosis of their individual learning problems. Will he not still be a math teacher who

teaches everything with a shade of math? There are, of course, exceptions, but the exceptions are exceptions and not the general pattern.

We must diagnose; a good rule to follow is our definition by Della-Piana, referred to earlier in this chapter. We must start by knowing the individual student's "weaknesses" and "strengths" before we can deal fairly with his learning needs. Often teachers have been known to make statements, like the following, after several weeks or months with students: "I didn't know that Mr. "J" was so good in math or Mr. "A" is far to far behind the group to catch up, but I hate to pull him out because they are all such good friends". "Mrs. "J" is definitely my problem in the intermediate group - she's only intermediate in language arts - her knowledge and abilities in social studies are with the GED group and her math with the group below her". The above statements and many like them come from persons who have the "start school programs" minus a good diagnostic effort to guide your activities. Each of the statements gives broad implications for the need of a dynamic approach to program implementation via a good

diagnostic approach. A diagnostic approach alone will not solve all of the problems, but it will at least let you know which ones you are attempting to solve.

According to Dechant (4), there are four major steps in the Diagnostic and Remedial Program. They are as follows:

1. Identifying the Difficulty
2. Diagnostic Testing
3. Fully Investigating the Causes of Reading Disability
4. Organization and Implementation

This writer feels that the checklist on the following pages is a worthwhile instrument in assisting the teacher in his/her efforts to diagnose. This checklist was also taken from Dechant.

The paging is a bit erratic in this document. For example, there is a gap between page 37 and page 42; however, I can't see that anything is missing.

E. B.

CHAPTER IV

Methods and Materials for Teaching Reading

Reading Methods for Beginners

All through the history of education, there has been controversy about how to teach reading. It is easy to get excited about the subject; it is equally easy to become sold on certain methods. In these few pages, however, I will try not to sell anyone on anything. Let me begin by recommending that everyone remember the following piece of common sense: Any teacher (who is good) can teach any student (who wants to learn) how to read, no matter what method is used. So if you are getting good results as a teacher, it might not be wise to change your ways. At the same time, it is also only common sense to realize that no one is ever perfect and that there is always something to learn--especially in the field of literacy. Teaching adults to read is not the same as teaching children to read. There is, in fact, a good chance that we will be wrong if we assume that what works for children will work for adults.

One probable reason for so many reading failures in our schools is the content of schoolbook readers. Traditionally this content has been concerned solely with the white middle-class suburbanite, and as a consequence great numbers of city-dwelling students have found nothing to relate to or to become interested in.

As adults, students are expected to learn from the same content, they will simply have to face the old problems and defeats over again. There is one thing that can be said with certainty about teaching adults to read--give them content that is related to their daily lives.

As for reading instruction itself, few reading programs use one pure method to the exclusion of all others. Therefore, if the following descriptions of methods do not give a true picture of what is going on in many classrooms, it is because of two things: first, each description covers only the fundamentals underlying the method; second, most reading methods include variations and elements of other methods. Finally, remember that these descriptions refer only to methods of beginning reading instruction.

The sight-word method emphasizes the learning of whole words by using many repetitions of a relatively small word list. This method tends to emphasize "getting meaning" at the very first. It uses picture clues and meaning content and word shapes in order to encourage a good guess at difficult words. No one, however, could ever learn all his reading vocabulary by simple shape differences. The sight-word method therefore includes a number of phonic techniques.

The phonics method emphasizes the sounds of words, and it uses the letters of the alphabet as elements of sound. It focuses on sounding out words by giving helpful rules--such as "when two vowels go walking, the first one does the talking." By applying this rule, for example, students learn how to sound our r-o-a-d.

The linguistics method, unlike phonics, focuses on whole words. It makes the most of the fact that an alphabet is used to spell the spoken language by beginning with the "regular" spelling of words, spellings that are easiest to learn to read because the same one symbol regularly spells the same one sound. Since these spellings spell most of the words of English, students learn to read

great numbers of words by learning only a few spellings. Less regular spellings are introduced in a sequential order as students gain control over the more regular spellings. For example, two regular patterns are found in bit and bite; the word write introduces one irregularity and tight, a more extreme irregularity. Theoretically, this method also emphasizes the sentence and its parts as units for conveying meaning. Thus different grammatical elements are also carefully introduced.

The "new" alphabet method tries to overcome irregularity in spelling by using a "new" alphabet that has one symbol for one sound. For example, according to one analysis, there are forty-four sounds in English; therefore an alphabet of forty-four letters is used, one letter for each sound. When students learn to read this alphabet, they then learn to transfer to the English system of twenty-six letters.

The color method is equally concerned with irregularities in spelling, but it uses the regular alphabet and a system of colors--one color for one sound. Thus, for example, the a in hat is given one color while the a in hate is given another. When students have learned

to read by responding partly to spelling and partly to color, they are gradually weaned from the color.

Differences among these methods are fundamental--and important--but they are not everything. There is certainly more to the teaching of reading than is suggested by these basic differences. Ideally, any beginning program takes the following factors into account:

1. Words that are in the speaking or listening vocabularies of the students.

2. Phrases and sentences that are idiomatic English instead of the "unreal" sentences of most schoolbook readers.

3. Some plan for including writing in the program.

4. Opportunity to listen to oral language in meaningful content.

5. Opportunity to listen to oral reading. Oral reading is of special importance for two reasons: first, it enables students to concentrate on comprehension instead of sounding out words; second, it enables students to become familiar with the syntax of written prose, which is certainly different from the syntax of their own speech.

6. Awareness of the problem of dialect. Be wary of reading programs that try to teach pronunciation. Reading is not a matter of "correct" pronunciation. Within our own country people with different pronunciations all respond to exactly the same spellings.

> Some people see cot and caught and say both words alike; others say them differently. Let your students have the same freedom--that is, let them talk naturally. The problem of "standard" and "nonstandard" speech is a tricky one, as will be explained in the section on English.

In choosing among the various reading programs, select a program that moves the student along rapidly, while giving him many opportunities for success in his work. Adults want to learn fast--and they can, too. Adults have better visual perception than children, larger speaking and listening vocabularies than children, and they know a good deal more about the world than children. Adults who have gotten along in the world without reading have, as a matter of fact, become very skillful in certain kinds of reading--they can read signs and gestures, they can follow clues, they can pick up meaning from context. Such people coming to class with a new motivation for reading can learn very quickly, especially if they can see the logic of what they are doing--that is, if they see a logical sequence in the program, if they grasp the concept of spelling and sound, if they are confronted with reasonable and psychologically

appropriate problems. In this connection remember that, although the program moves rapidly, the teacher may have to move slowly. Allow each student all the time he needs for orientation to the classroom and for understanding the learning problems. Be sure that each student experiences success and recognizes his successes. (15)

The methods discussed in this chapter are just some of plenty, they do not assume to be the last words, yet, they have been found to work for some. There are two other methods that could be discussed here but they will be discussed in the chapter that deals with ESL. They are the Direct Method and the Basic English Method. (2)

The Gouin Theme

This is probably the oldest method developed and is the forerunner of many of the more recent methods in use today. Originated by Francois Gouin, this approach makes use of a series of related acts which tell a story in six to ten simple sentences, expressed in the first person, present tense, each of which can be dramatized seperately.

I Read My Newspaper

1. I come home.
2. I take off my hat.
3. I take off my coat.
4. I take my newspaper.
5. I sit down in my chair.
6. I open my newspaper.
7. I read my newspaper.

The story or "theme" is developed orally by the teacher with the students and then is written on the chalk board by the teacher. Gouin felt that a series of related sentences are learned more easily than isolated sentences expressing a single idea. The choice of a theme is unlimited and the length and difficulty can be changed to keep pace with the group. Grammatical structure is learned incidentally by changing the tense and person of the story for additional practice and repetition.

In using this method with foreign born adults, the emphasis should be put upon the oral or conversational phases. With native born adults, the stress should be upon the reading, comprehension and writing. (2)

The Community Approach

An attempt to serve the individual apart from the life of the community in which he lives is insignificant and meaningless. In America, individuals participate in community life through groups; they are members of groups which, in turn, through a composite of relationships, make up the community. The Community Approach is sensitive to and builds complete lesson units around the daily, on-going events in a community in which the adult has to participate in order to carry on, independently, the barest essentials of life--food getting, family raising, job holding and use of leisure time. This approach makes use of the theme idea in building reading selections around which an entire lesson is developed.

For foreign born adults more emphasis should be placed upon the oral part of the lessons. With native born adults the emphasis should be upon the reading and writing portions of the lesson.

The Laubach Method

This is a method developed specifically to meet the needs of illiterates in most of the underpriviledged portions of the world. In recent years special materials--

Streamlined English and others--have been prepared for use in teaching the communication skills in English. The vocabulary used is based upon the 1,000 most used words in English taken from the Thorndike-Lorge word list and the content is simple but mature. The first twenty lessons are based upon the five vowels. The emphasis is placed upon reading skill and comprehension.

This method is, perhaps, more effective with native born adults, but has been used successfully with foreign born beginning students.

The Sentence Approach

There is evidence to show that the most successful methods in teaching literacy skills to the native born are those which make use of the "global" or sentence approach, presenting ideas or thoughts through sentences and paragraphs. This facilitates the development of the ability to comprehend the written or printed page in order to obtain knowledge or skills.

Audio Visuals

The use of audio visual materials as a method of enriching and supplementing the presentation of subject matter in elementary adult basic education should be

basic to any teaching method that is used. A wealth of approaches and devices is available to assist the teacher in relating the parts of a lesson more closely to the background and immediate needs of the students.

Many audio visuals are easily obtainable. Some are inexpensive and/or homemade; others cost a bit more. When carefully selected and used, they can prove to be a good investment of time, effort and money. With a thoughtfully selected and prepared audio visual set of materials a teacher can make a lesson "come alive" and possess meaning for the adult students in a manner that cannot be achieved by any other means.

Audio visuals can:

1. provide first hand experiences not otherwise available for the students.
2. help to make associations for those learning a new language or communication for the first time.
3. turn adstractions into reality.
4. eliminate time and space to bring people, objects and places into a classroom.
5. help to motivate, increase interest and arouse a desire for further information.
6. provide a means for review and additional practice and repetition.

7. increase the participation of the students through questions and discussion.
8. correct mistaken impressions and concepts.
9. help to change ideas and opinions.
10. help to remove bias and prejudice.
11. be used by either the students or the teacher.

Kinds of Audio Visuals For Use in Adult Elementary Classes

There are several types of audio visuals which can be used to good advantage with adult elementary classes. They are merely listed here. Detailed references are given in the Materials section. (2)

1. Chalk board
2. Bulletin Board
3. Flashcards
4. Posters, charts, maps
5. Flat pictures
6. Flannel board
7. Objects
8. Dioramas
9. Mock ups
10. Slides
11. Filmstrips

12. Films

13. Records, recordings

14. Visits, field trips

15. Exhibits

16. Radio, TV
17. Transparencies
18. Games

Organizing for Individualization Methods and Materials

Individualized instruction with adults has been defined as the release of human potential. This human potential is everything with which an individual is capable of responding. Every adult who is performing with less than he is capable of deserves the chance to realize his potential. It is up to us as teachers of adults to use those techniques and materials which will promote and provide for the following:

1. Increased individual responsibility and commitment.

2. Total personal responsiveness.

3. Opportunities for learners to discover their own powers.

4. Personal relevance to experiences which the individual learner shares with other members of his group. (1)

We as teachers, work toward allowing for individual differences in children, why should we assume that adults

must be treated differently? The individual approach is flexible and allows the teacher to utilize materials and media to provide for effective reading in adults. The techniques in individual instruction are many and varied.

Guidelines to aid in providing a positive learning experience for adults:

1. Do not spend too much time telling about what you are going to do.
2. Provide students with background for what they are learning.
3. Never underestimate the skills or knowledge of the student group.
4. Have a course outline of what you expect to cover in each session, but be prepared, and willing, to abandon much of your outline temporarily or revise it as the occasion may demand.
5. Incorporate time for socialization into the instructional program.
6. Plan your teaching-learning sessions; advanced planning is a prerequisite for effective teaching.
7. Remember that adult students have a great deal to give.
8. Plan for participation all the way through the course. (2)

How can you best promote this release of human potential

in your classroom? Give your students the opportunity to make decisions about their learning experience.

Organization for Instruction:

Part 1. Independent reading

Part 2. Small-group discussion and reading

Independent Reading

Now how do we start independent reading? The adult students begin by reading what interests them. The teacher does not have to worry about motivating these people. They would not be in the class in the first place if they were not motivated. Give them the opportunity to work in groups or by themselves.

Materials

Where do they find reading materials?

1. They bring them from their home:

newspapers	magazines
children's books	cookbooks
catalogs	Bible
paperbacks	Letters
comics	telephone books
T.V. Guide	

2. They bring them from the school library or the local library.

3. The teacher makes reading materials available from the ABE resource library.

4. The teacher provides in the room:

newspapers	dictionaries
comics	Drivers Manuals
cookbooks	crossword puzzles
catalogs	signs
magazines (Life's, Woman's Day, etc.)	

Procedure

Begin:

Tell them, "Choose a book you can read. Choose one in which you know most of the words. Them read, either by yourself or with someone else. If you find a difficult word, try to figure it out. If it is an important word, ask me or someone else to give you help. Skip it if it isn't important."

Conference

Have a conference with those who need your help or feel need of your assistance. What do you do in a conference?

1. Help them with their vocabulary.

2. Find out where their interests lie, what they are reading.

3. Help them with those word skills that will

take care of their immediate needs.

4. Have them make a notebook for all the new words that are meaningful to them.

5. Have them dictate letters to friends for you to write down. Let them copy the letters.

6. Have them dictate a story for you and write it for them.

7. Keep a diary of Things-to-Do.

8. Help them write down addresses of friends and relatives.

9. Play adult games such as Scrabble, Vowel Lotto, Consonant Lotto.

10. Have group work boxes; a separate box for nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs. Use them to make sentences.

Small Group Discussion and Reading

Ways of Grouping: How can you organize groups so that learning takes place?

1. Group according to interests
   a. reading subject matter
   b. occupation
   c. hobbies
   d. goals
   e. current events

2. Group according to ability
   a. reading level
   b. work attack skills
   c. comprehension skills and levels
   d. vocabulary

3. Group according to practical needs
   a. passing the driver's test
   b. caring for clothes
   c. planning meals
   d. comparative shopping
   e. filling out forms (income tax, job application)
   f. reading maps
   g. reading money
   h. studying insurance policies
   i. reading bus schedules, football schedules
   j. using the dictionary

Group Dynamics: There are a number of specific steps which may be taken to facilitate learning in a discussion group:

1. Promote an informal atmosphere by arranging the seats in a circle rather than a row. This allows everyone to be involved in group interaction.

2. Encourage the members to introduce themselves and give some background information about themselves. It might be necessary to be prepared with some information about each member in order to start the introductions or to help out a member.

3. Set down the objectives and goals of the class in order to provide them with direction.

4. Give your students an opportunity to be involved in the decision making processes in their class.

5. Teach constructively with meaningful material.

6. Reinforce their efforts positively.

7. Look for practical and meaningful learning situations which are related to the students' everyday world.

8. Let your students feel free to move in and out of the group .

Group Tasks: What do you do after yor organize into groups?

1. Those in interest grouping can pursue their interests:
   a. through discussion
   b. by use of audio-visual aids (films, tapes)
   c. with projects (sewing, mechanics)
   d. with reports (Vietnam, integration, taxes)

2. Those students in ability groups can:
   a. be placed in programmed materials
   b. pair off and work together on a particular deficiency
   c. utilize the conference activities talked about earlier

3. Those grouped according to practical needs can:
   a. follow basically the same format as those in the interest groups
   b. have speakers to come for discussion (insurance agent, traffic safety officer)
   c. give individual help to one who may need it

Group Structure: How many in each group?

It is not necessary to incorporate all these types of groups. It will depend on the types of students and their needs. You may want to use only one of the grouping categories, for example, ability. The number in the group or groups will depend on:

1. How many students you have.

2. How many you feel you can handle in one group.

You may wish to have several sub-groups.

Record Keeping: Provide your students with record books or notebooks in which they can keep a record of their progress. You will want to check this occasionally to be aware of areas which need more work. Look for areas where the student is moving too slowly or too fast. Are these areas in which learning is taken place?

Selection Criteria for Materials

In order to provide materials which will promote as much individualization as possible the following selection criteria are suggested as guidelines for materials:

1. The content must be appropriate for adults. This includes considerations of (a) interest level, (b) readability, and (c) adult appearance of material.

2. The edition date should be fairly recent.

3. Materials should be adaptable for both individual and group instruction.

4. Multi-level materials must be available; the range of reading levels within a class is often as much as seven levels.

5. Content should, whenever possible, raise the self-esteem and status of the adult learner.

6. Materials should be written in such a manner that they are conducive to individual study.

Evaluation

Can the student use his reading ability for the purposes he set initially?

Has he become not only someone who can read, but someone who will read? Is he able to make better use of his potential? (6)

CHAPTER V

Specific Techniques for Teaching Reading

Techniques for Teaching

Whenever we consider instruction in the basic skill areas, we necessarily must consider beginning where the individual is in relation to his proficiency in knowing the "building blocks" of reading. Through our initial diagnosis we should have an accurate idea of what is needed to develop his reading proficiency. On the basis of this information, it is necessary to prescribe a course of study to enrich what he does know and fill in the gaps or skill areas that he does not know. Before discussing techniques of developing the reading skill areas of word recognition and vocabulary, comprehension, and study skills, it would be advisable to pause and look at our overall approach to teaching. We can follow four generally recognized avenues of instruction:

1. The global or analytic technique begins with a story of a sentence which the group learns to read at sight, then studies the sentence

independently, and finally studies the words in the sentence.

2. The synthetic technique begins with the study and recognition of the elements of words, such as letters and syllables. After these components are mastered, the adult then learns to put them together into words.

3. The analytic-synthetic technique is a combination of both (1) and (2). It begins with words or sentences, but the various component elements are studied at the same time.

4. The eclectic technique is a combination of the other three techniques used discriminately in terms of the story to be read, the characteristics of the words to be learned, and the ability and experience of the student.

In practice, an eclectic approach should be used with emphasis placed on the technique (above) that seems most comfortable for the adult.

Reading Readiness

Certain factors favor adults over children in learning basic reading skills:

1. The adult is highly motivated, and because of this, he will probably learn faster.

2. He has, over an expanded period of time and through necessity, developed a larger speaking vocabulary and a stronger auditory and visual memory than a youngster.

3. He already has, in most instances, at least a small sight vocabulary.

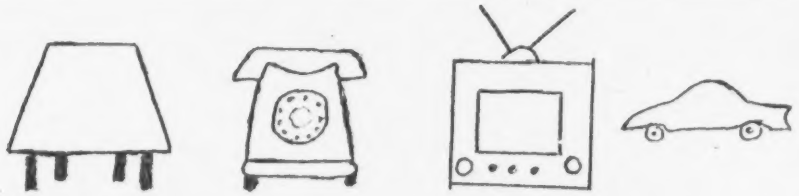
An extensive reading readiness program may not, therefore, be necessary except for a number of adults. For those few, the possibility of a specific learning disability may exist, in which case, further diagnosis and remediation, possibly involving the Visual Auditory Kinesthetic Tactile technique, may be in order. Those who use this approach should read Fernald's Remedial Techniques in Basal School Subjects.

Readiness for adults consists of:

1. Ability to read and write their own names.
2. Ability to read and write some sight words.
3. Ability to recognize and write (or copy) the alphabet.
4. Ability to recognize and write (or copy) the numerals 1-10.
5. Awareness of a sound-symbol relationship, that is, letters have sounds and can be combined to make new words; and that these words combine with others and move in a left to right progression to form sentences and paragraphs.
6. Ability to understand and respond, to some degree, to spoken English.

The following are some examples of activities that help develop reading readiness:

1. Which of these sound the same:



2. Group these according to their beginning sounds (the written word may be added) :

3. Underline the words that begin with the same sound:

newspaper magazine book movie

4. Underline the word that begins with a different sound:

baseball football boxing basketball

5. Underline the rhyming words:

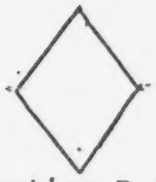
In the church the man sat
Holding his hat

6. Underline the rhyming words:

ball call old fall

7. Learn these signs by their shape:

Stop Yield Right of Way Railroad Warning



Caution Reduce Speed

Information or Regulatory

Developing Word Analysis Skills

The development of a bsic sight vocabulary is but a step in building basic reading skills. The successful reader must also be able to employ a variety of techniques in attacking unknown words. The student's basic sight vocabulary can be used as a foundation in learning word attack skills.

These skills are knowledge of:

A. Phonic Skills--

1. Initial consonant sounds
   a. those with one sound only: b,d,f,h, j,k,l,m,n,p,r,t,v,w,y,z.
   b. the hard sound or more common sound of those with more than one sound: c (cat), g (goat), q (quick), s (see), x (exit).
   c. the soft sound or less common sound: c (cell), g (giraffe), q (bouquet), s (roses), x (x-ray, xylophone).

2. Final consonant sounds

3. Medial consonant sounds

4. Consonant blends such as: bl, br, cl, cr, dr, fl, fr, gr, scr, spr, etc.

5. Consonant digraphs such as: ch, sh, th.

6. Short vowel sounds

7. Long vowel sounds; role of e

8. Value of vowels when affected by r, w, l, as ar (farm), ir(fir), aw (raw), and al (walk).

9. Vowel diphthongs -- ou, ow, or, oy

10. Double vowels such as: oa, ee

11. Word families

12. Silent letters such as: K(Knife),b(lamb).

B. Structural analysis:

1. Endings s, es, d, ed, ing, er, est, y, ly (etc.)

2. Compound words -- e.g. washroom

C. Syllabication:

1. Every syllable contains a vowel and

2. Syllables usually divide between two consonants -- can/dy

3. A single consonant usually goes with the second syllable -- be/gin

4. diagraphs and blends are not divided -- chick/en

5. prefixes and suffixes

D. Context clues

1. Definition clues

2. Experience clues

Word Recognition and Vocabulary Development

When techniques of word recognition are employed, the objective is to raise the student to a stage of proficiency which allows him to recognize words quickly and accurately. In essence, the student develops the ability to associate sounds with visual symbols and to comprehend the meaning of the sounds. This is a highly complex skill and the teacher should remember that there are many possible ways to learn these printed symbols. Results of initial diagnostic tests or informal teacher-made tests can serve as starting points in determining the course of instruction.

A basic sight vocabulary is essential for effective reading. Every successful reader has a good stock of basic sight words.

In addition to the obvious value of recognizing words instantly, sight words can serve as a foundation in developing word attack skills. How then, can the instructor

help the adult in developing a basic recognition vocabulary? Some suggested types of activities are:

1. Help adults keep a personal list of those words they express a wish to know. This list can be kept alphabetically, in a notebook, or on file cards in a word box.

2. Introduce 5 or 6 words for the day drawn from current events. List on the board or on a chart. (These can be discussed).

3. Introduce on the chalkboard words that are going to be used:
   Step 1. Write: we are going to read about Mary Bethune.
   Step 2. Read and ask: "Who can find Mary Bethune's name and underline it?" (We are going to read about Mary Bethune).
   Step 3. Talk briefly (one sentence) about Mary Bethune. Isolate her name at the side. (We are going to read about Mary Bethune).
   Step 4. "Who can read her name?"

4. a. Write a cooperative class newspaper on newsprint. Type, duplicate for the class. Read with the class. Underline important teacher-designated or pupil-designated words.
   b. Do the same with any material being used in a text-like way.

5. a. Make up word or phrase cards based on basic sight vacabulary or student's need and let students practice them with a partner.
   b. Do the same with commercial word or phrase cards.
   c. Study picture-word cards individually or with a partner.

6. Have students insert the missing word by choosing from several words.

   The _____makes the car stop.

   brake, bake, lake, barn

7. Have students fill in missing words in a short story or paragraph:

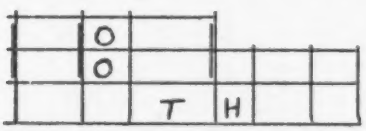
   Dr. Doolittle was a little old _____ who had so many pets all over his _____that his patients wouldn't visit him. So he becomes a doctor for _____. He learns to talk to the animals.

   doctor, language, animals, house

8. Write down the words to popular songs and underline rhyming words and alliterative words.

9. Practice speaking and reading tongue twisters.

10. Fill in anagram puzzles:



An animal that gives milk.
Her day is in May.
His day is in June.

11. Trace and say difficult small words:

    THE ("tee-aitch-ee")

12. Find (in a list) all the color words, all the car words, all the food words, etc.

Colors	Cars	Foods
red	trucks	oranges
ten	station wagons	children
blue	trains	trees
green	trailers	turnips
grass	bicycles	Milk

13. Read independently from pupil materials and jot down unknown words for future study.

14. Label everything in the room.

15. Make picture dictionaries or either general vocabulary or specialized vocabulary. Utilize the students' artistic talents.

16. Look up words in a standard dictionary.

17. Make sentences with new and interesting words.

18. Tell the meaning of sentences that use new and interesting words:

    The new Oldsmobile has <u>overdrive</u>.
    What is <u>overdrive</u>?

<u>Summary</u>

A basic sight vocabulary and effective word attack skills are basic to the development of reading ability. These skills should be taught, wherever possible, in the form in which they will be used. The growth of skills in one area of reading will lead to the growth of skills in other areas. Growth in word recognition skills will necessarily lead to growth in comprehension; and growth in comprehension will lead to growth in word recognition skills. (6)

Testing the Student's Reading Ability and Potential

As we will see presently, instruction is provided on three different levels which correspond to the eight grade levels of elementary school. However, as every teacher knows, all children in the third grade are not necessarily doing third grade work or third grade reading. A more refined method of classification is required within the broad frame work of teaching levels.

A specific assessment of each student's reading ability, present and potential, will help the teacher choose appropriate materials and teaching techniques for each one. This assessment must be made at the beginning of the course so that individualized instruction can proceed. Those who enter the class at a later time should be evaluated right away. Re-assessment of all students should take place at regular intervals (approximately 50 teaching hours) to determine their rate of progress, and to adjust methods and materials to their new level of performance.

Two types of informal tests are recommended for use at the beginning of the program to assess the instructional level (I, II, or III) for placing the student, to determine his potential reading ability at that time, and to

assess his present reading ability. A 10-minute word recognition test and a simple oral reading test can be used to determine all of these.

A short word recognition test, consisting of a graded list of words, may be used to determine initial placement in the reading program in the first, second or third reading level. The same test may be used to determine the student's instructional level, independent reading level, and frustration level so that appropriate teaching techniques and materials can be selected. The standards for these levels differ somewhat from children to adults so the adult standards are presented here.

The instructional level will be that level at which the student recognizes most of the words on the word recognition test but fails to recognize or grossly mispronounces a few. In terms of reading it would mean he could recognize well over 90 percent of the words in a selection instantly and could read smoothly with good comprehension and without showing undue stress. He should need help with no more than 5 percent of the words. Errors should be noted but language difficulties (mispronunciations, endings added or omitted, etc.) stemming

from cultural deprivation these should not be counted in the 5 percent. Some will make the same errors on all levels of material and thus would appear to have no instructional level. Here teacher judgement is a vital ingredient in finding the proper instructional level.

At a later date, when the student is adjusted to the ABE program, he can be re-tested with graded paragraphs to determine his new instructional level. The student is usually asked to read one paragraph orally and another silently at each grade level of readability. However, initial testing should be done with the word recognition test because this can be accomplished more quickly and with less anxiety to the student.

The student's independent reading level is one grade level below the instructional level. He can instantly recognize over 95 percent of the words in reading material at this level, can understand it easily, and can read it aloud smoothly. However, habitual mispronunciations, omissions of endings, etc. should not be penalized (but should be corrected).

His frustration level, on the other hand, is one grade level higher than the instructional level. When

reading material at the frustration level, the student will hold a book very close to his face, point with his finger to the words, and his voice may either rise in pitch or decrease in volume to a mumble. Material at the student's frustration level is too difficult to handle pleasurably or profitably and should obviously be avoided.

Determination of the student's present potential ("present" because it will increase as his education progresses) is a most important part of the initial testing program. Using graded paragraphs, the teacher reads to the student in order to find out the highest level of graded reading material he can comprehend orally. That level represents his potential capacity for reading at that time. This assumption is made on the theory that writing is merely printed speech. If a student can understand what is read at a certain grade level, he will presumably be able to read at that level once he has acquired the necessary reading skills.

The use of graded paragraphs to determine a student's capacity to learn to read is preferred over a verbal intelligence test. Intelligence tests tend to be oriented

to middle-class vocabulary and knowledge. Besides, they test general information and other capabilities which do not necessarily apply to the student's future ability to learn to read.

In the event that a disadvantaged student's present potential level is very low, the teacher should consider helping him raise his ability to comprehend orally. There are two helpful sources which can guide the teacher in providing training in listening: What Research Says to the Teacher, and Listening Aids Through the Grades (NEA).

Students should be re-tested regularly with standardized silent reading tests which are carefully chosen. Choose a test in which the student's expected score is near the middle range of possible scores, and be alert for the possibility that a student might be a poor reader but a good guesser.

In many states, elementary grade certificates are awarded in part on the basis of a student's achievement on a standardized test. Since the standardized reading test is objective, and its error of over-estimation tends to remain rather constant, it can and should be used for this purpose.

As stated previously, a standardized test should not be used when the adult first enters the program. However, once he has progressed further, he can be tested periodically with standardized tests to determine his progress and his qualifications for a certificate. It is recommended that a test with several forms be chosen so that a different form can be used for each testing period. It is also recommended that the student be given some experience in taking standardized tests before the results are taken seriously. Otherwise a student may be tested on how to take a test rather than on the skills that the test is supposed to assess! (14)

CHAPTER VI

Specific Techniques for Teaching Arithmetic

The first step in beginning arithmetic class is to assess and appraise your students. You need to have a data card on each student giving any pertinent information such as:

1. Occupation
2. Family Status
3. Reading Level
4. Goal (Why is he in the class?)
5. Interests

You need to test each student to diagnose his strengths and weaknesses in arithmetic. No person comes to these adult classes without some knowledge of arithmetic. Your job is to find out just what he does know so you can determine what skills need to be developed. Always build on his strengths. Arithmetic tests can be formal, standardized, or informal. Examples of formal

tests are the Adult Basic Learning Examination Test of Adult Basic Education. These formal tests are of a general nature and quite often do not diagnose strengths and weaknesses as well as informal test. You may also use diagnostic tests that are found in arithmetic kits such as SRA and McCormick - Mathers Kit which you will examine shortly.

Now that you have an idea of what your new student knows and does not know, you must decide on your strategy. The following are your general strategies:

1. Individualized instruction
2. Small-group instruction
3. Large-group instruction
4. Eclectic instruction

You are probably asking yourself: How do I know which to use? Know your students and what you plan to do. Individualized instruction can be used when you want a student to work on a particular skill alone. Small-group instruction can be used when repetitious drill and practice is needed or when students will profit by helping each other. Large-group instruction really does not have

a place in the adult arithmetic program. Never will you have a class in which all are on the same level and progress at the same rate. The eclectic strategy should be the most useful because by the use of this strategy the teacher uses that which best suits the student and the situation.

Once the strategy has been decided, the teacher must decide which technique to use to carry out the strategy.

Teaching Arithmetic

The disadvantaged person whose mathematical ability depends entirely on his ten (10) fingers is as embarrassed about disclosing his ignorance as the person who cannot read or write. Persons who cannot do arithmetic have an additional reason for not admitting it - he does not want to be cheated in money transactions.

Thirty years ago, when adult illiteracy was more prevalent, the poor and illiterate were all too frequently victimized by store-keepers and salesmen. They had to develop some elaborate schemes for protecting themselves, many of which are still useful today. They would buy in each store, at any one time, only a limited amount which would equal the amount which they could count to.

They paid for it in amounts which were close enough to that total so that counting the change was no problem. Since budgeting or adding and subtracting long lists of figures were beyond them, - they budgeted their money by buying the most necessary items first. If enough money was left over after they had purchased the flour and the meal, they bought some side meat for seasoning. Then, if there was still some change left, it would be used for cigarettes or sweets.

Because the uneducated person still faces the same problem of surviving in a world where some knowledge of arithmetic is essential, these methods still work! Regardless of how he does it, any adult who has handled money for years will learn to count change and do simple problems in addition or subtraction. He may not be able to write, add a column of numbers, or even explain how he gets the answers, but he does get the answers and they are almost always right.

This kind of background in the sink-or-swim variety of arithmetic makes teaching easier for the teacher and learning easier for the student. The teacher will not

have to start from scratch, as she often does in the communication skills, and the student will begin his work with the reassuring knowledge that he knows more than he thought he did about arithmetic.

The General Approach to Teaching Arithmetic

Arithmetic is best taught by following the same general rules that apply to teaching all aspects of the ABE curriculum. These five commandments of good teaching can be briefly restated as follows:

*Teach what the student wants and needs to know

*Tie in lessons of communication and other subjects with the arithmetic lessons

*Use a variety of appropriate materials

*Begin instruction where the student's knowledge leaves off

*Teach by means of concrete, useful examples

In arithmetic, teaching what the student wants to know means showing the women in the class how to measure for sewing patterns, double a recipe, or put together the right amounts for the baby's formula. Practically every operation in the home - be it sewing, cooking, or cleaning - requires some knowledge of arithmetic today. (Anyone who

has ever put more than the required 2/3 cup of detergent in the washing machine has probably found out that those directions on the box are worth following).

Teaching the art and science of measuring to the disadvantaged person may, however, require some preliminary discussion to convince members of the class that this kind of precision is worthwhile. The person who has grown up cooking with a pinch of this and a pinch of that may see no reason at first for being more precise about it. The woman who has always used "about that much" bleach in her clothes may not realize that an overdose can dramatically shorten the life of her clothes. In other words, some homemaking education may be in order to acquaint the housewives in the class with the more scientific approach to products on the market today, whose manufacturers mean what they say in their directions on the box.

The men in the class will probably want to know how to weigh, measure, and compute things which deal with their jobs. However, it may be necessary to combine some consumer education and financial education in money management to make them aware of things they should know.

An introduction into the tangled world of credit, loans, carrying charges, and hidden costs may give adults new insights into the usefulness of simple arithmetic. Budgeting, banking, and comparison shopping are other useful concepts which may or may not be suggested by members of the class.

Although banks today are bending over backwards to dispel the notion that they are an exclusive service for the wealthy, most disadvantaged people still feel hesitant about walking into a bank, regardless of how "folksy" the decor and advertising have tried to make it seem. If they did go in, they would not likely be found chatting with the vice-president about a loan, or about which form of checking account would be best for them. The ABE teacher may be their first contact with impartial information on money management.

Insurance, too, will be a useful subject for discussion and for teaching arithmetic. It is a lucrative field for those who prey upon the fears and misinformation of the poor. Many are paying small amounts weekly for insurance which they do not need (at least, they would

be better off spending their limited funds on another type of insurance), and for which they are paying a great deal when the small payments are all added together. Since they are often afraid to approach the more formal offices of reputable insurance salemen, they will tend to lean toward the mail-order or door-to-door variety which seldom offers a bargain.

The arithmetic of the paycheck is another area which will be important to most members of the class. Students want and need to learn computations involving their paychecks, including both the arithmetic and the purpose of deductions. Social security, medicare, and income taxes are subjects of general interest for discussion as well as being practical arithmetic problems. A pie chart showing how the students' tax dollar is spent can double as an example of how percentages are used and arrived at. Closely allied to the arithmetic of the paycheck is the arithmetic of budgeting, which may be an entirely novel concept to some or a mysterious one to others in the class.

The field of consumer education is one in which

even the middle-class college graduate can use some help these days. In spite of the more stringent packaging and labeling laws which have been enacted recently, comparison shopping still requires more slide-rule computations than it should. If two bottles at 16 fluid ounces each cost 89¢, and one bottle containing one pint 4½ ounces costs 67¢, which is the better buy? Or, if 15 cans cost one dollar, how much are six cans?

The teacher has a good opportunity here to teach, in addition to the arithmetic involved, some of the precautions consumers must exercise to avoid being confused by manufacturers' claims, packaging techniques, or pricing policies. Unfortunately, advertising claims for miracle ingredients which claim impossible results will be most successful with the uneducated whose gullibility is a mixure of ignorance and hope. But they are the ones who can least afford to be deceived by that inert extra ingredient or that oversized box which contains three ounces less merchandise than its standard-size competitor.

In short, communication skills and general information must and should be an integral part of the arithmetic

program. This is true partly because pure arithmetic is difficult to teach and more difficult to understand or apply. In addition, the ability to weigh, measure, and count is meaningless if the student does not know what and why to weigh, measure, and count. There is, after all, little point in being able to count your change correctly if you are purchasing a bottle of snake oil to remove warts.

Methods of Teaching Arithmetic

Since the ABE program is geared to teaching adults what is important and useful to them, the teaching of arithmetic must be as individualized and practical as teaching in the rest of the curriculum. And since nothing in the ABE program should be presented in isolated units, the teaching of arithmetic must also be a part of communication training and general education for life.

Just as reading lessons also become listening, speaking and subject matter lessons, the arithmetic lesson should be part of a large unit of instruction. It may be the point of emphasis, but it should not be taught as an abstract, isolated skill.

The methods used to accomplish this integrated learning are the same as those used in teaching reading and other skills. Concentrate on one area - such as shopping or measuring - choosing that area which has most interest for the students. Start out with selected readings on that subject, followed by discussion and writing. When the arithmetic of the subject is explained, it will have been preceded by understanding and a heightened interest in mastering it. Use materials like coins which students are already familiar with, and other concrete examples which are or should be part of their daily lives.

Teach the mathematical realities of daily life by showing adults how to arrive at the correct answer to a practical problem. The concept behind this procedure is a confusing, extraneous part of the lesson which need not enter into the initial learning process. After some exposure to concrete examples, the concepts will become self-evident to the student anyway, even if they are not identified and labeled by the teacher.

The use of concrete examples allows students to learn from the specific to the general, and permits them

to use many of their senses in the learning process. It also undergirds their motivation, by answering questions they want answered or teaching them to solve the kinds of problems they meet in everyday life.

Within the framework of a unit of instruction, many skills and facts are brought into play, and each can be geared to the level of all participating students. Computations in a unit on money management or consumer education can vary in complexity, from simple addition for the beginner to compound interest for those who are further advanced. (15)

Following is a very practical math lesson, it must be used after there is a determination that it is not too complex for the student to use.

What To Ask Before Buying

Name of Store_____Item_____

Address_____Brand_____

Name of Salesman_____Date_____

Is the price marked? Yes___No___Price$_____+Tax $_____

This now equals the Cash Price $_____

Credit Price

Down payment (a) $_____

Monthly payment $_____ (b) $_____

Months to pay_____	(c)	$_____
Multiply (b) by (c)	(d)	$_____
Add line (a) to (d) = Total	(e)	$_____
Total Credit Cost-Enter (e)	(f)	$_____

Extra Charges

Installation charge	(a)	$_____
Delivery charge	(b)	$_____
Charge for pick up of old equipment	(c)	$_____
Warranty charge	(d)	$_____
Other charges (describe)_____	(e)	$_____
Add all extra charges for total	(f)	$_____

If buying for cash, add CASH PRICE TO TOTAL EXTRA CHARGES for total cash cost . . . . . $_____

If buying "on time", add CREDIT PRICE TO TOTAL EXTRA CHARGES for total cost when bought "on time" $_____

Monthly payment includes interest at ____% per _____ (month) or _____ (year), or Service Charge at ____% per _____ (month) or _____ (year).

If payment is made within 90 days, is there any service charge? Yes ____ No ____.

May balance due be paid before end of contract? Yes__ No__.

Warranty time limit: Months___or Years___. Yes___ No ____

Is there a charge for labor? Yes____ No_____

Is there a charge for parts? Yes____ No_____

Who services item under warranty? Dealer __Manufacturer__.

Is there an extra service contract which may be bought?

Yes____ No ____

Credit is financed by: Store___ Finance Company_____

Bank____ (3)

CHAPTER VII

Specific Techniques for Teaching Writing and Spelling

What is Spelling?

Before considering the teaching of spelling to adult illiterates, it may be wise to consider three general questions:

1. Why is the spelling of English so hard?
2. Why are some educated people poor spellers?
3. Why is spelling important?

The Difficulty of Spelling English

Spelling is a matter of using symbols (letters of the alphabet) to stand for the sounds of a language. If a language has one letter to stand for one sound and it always uses the same letter to spell the same sound, it is an easy language to spell. For just this reason, Italian and Finnish are languages that are easy to learn to spell, and English is a language that is hard to learn to spell.

In English, there are about thirty-four basic sounds

and only twenty-six letters to spell them. This means that some letters must serve to spell several sounds. In fact, the situation is even worse, because some letters may be used to spell many sounds. The common examples of this are the hard and soft c (cent, cut) and g (gem and give). But the vowels are the real troublemakers, as you can quickly see by noticing the sounds spelled by a in hat, ate, date, father, tall, aisle, again.

There are a number of reasons for these difficulties, and it may help to understand several of them. First, the sounds of English have been changing over the centuries, while the spellings have changed only very little. For example, the letters ai in again used to be regular (regular is used to mean letters that regularly spell the same sound; in this case, again rhymed with rain, and so ai was regular again); now, however, the sound of again has changed, while the spelling has stayed the same. In the 1700's people began to think that "correct"' spelling was an important virtue, and it was not long before the publishers and the schools began to insist on one rigid spelling for most words, even if the sounds had changed.

Second, as English borrowed words from other languages, new problems developed - foreign spelling might be kept, while English spellings were used.

Our English spelling is not as unreasonable as most people think. There is a strong system underlying it; and if the student learns the fundamentals of this system, he is well on his way to success. This important aspect of spelling is discussed in the section "The System of English Spelling".

What Makes a Poor Speller?

Psychologists do not really know why some very intelligent and highly educated people are still poor spellers. One thing is sure, however, learning to spell does not require a high IQ. Some people have trouble visualizing words, some have trouble hearing words, some have trouble getting the "feel" for writing words, and some just never learn the system of spelling English. Probably, all these factors are important in learning to spell, and in the section "The Way To Study Spelling", you will find a discussion of the need for getting students to see, hear, and feel the words that they are

studying. If they can do these things, and if they can learn something about the system, and if they read a good bit - then they will probably become good spellers.

Why Is Spelling Important?

As a matter of fact, "good spelling" is important only because people think it is. Very few spelling errors cause misunderstanding. (If you don't believe this, read some of the writings of your students and count the number of times a spelling error creates a problem in meaning.) People just think that spelling is important - it is perhaps not a good reason, but it is too strong a reason to be resisted. People seem to think that correct spelling is the sign of an educated man. So for this reason alone, spelling can be very important to your students. They, themselves, probably think that spelling is a sign of education; and so they are probably very anxious to become good spellers. You can capitalize on this by explaining that spelling really has nothing to do with intelligence or ability but that it can be most important in filling out applications for jobs or in writing business letters. People are much more inclined to pay attention to a letter that shows

good spelling (among other matters) than to a letter that is full of errors. For more about this, see the last part of this section "When and How To Be A Good Speller".

Teaching Spelling To Adult Illiterates: Know the Abilities of Your Students

It is worth repeating that your students are people who need success and satisfaction in their learning experiences. Be sure that the words they are spelling are appropriate for their reading level. Do not make the study assignment too heavy. Always keep the home situation in mind - how much can you expect a person to do in his home enviroment? These people enjoy doing what they can do. They can also become easily discouraged. Try to show them how to learn and give them encouragement and the opportunity to learn - then, if they want to, your students will be will on the way to achievement in spelling:

1. The way to study spelling
2. The basic system of English spelling
3. The importance of good spelling

The Way to Study Spelling

A common method used to teach spelling in the schools is called "test-study." By starting with a test, the child finds out what he needs to learn and also gets motivation. This is not really a test, but it sounds like one; and it is not a good idea to give even a suggestion of a test to adults. They have probably had unfortunate experiences with tests, the very word being enough to make most of them want to skip class. However, you might find test-study, and if you carefully explain that what you are doing is a diagnosis--as a doctor diagnoses a patient, to be a good method.

To teach the test-study method you must work with word lists. With a ready-made spelling program, literacy teachers have two sources for finding such lists--from the students themselves and from the students' reading materials.

To teach the words themselves, have the students do all of the following:

1. Picture the shape of the word.
2. Hear the sounds of the word.
3. Say the word in a sentence.

4. Write the word (get the "feel" of it).

Be sure to let the students set their own pace. Quite possibly they will need to say or write the word several times. You may be able to help students find certain remembering devices (for example, "all right" is the opposite of "all wrong"; or "flour" gives us our daily bread while "flower" is something else; or "meet" is to greet while "meat" is to eat).

The System of English Spelling

In the first section of this chapter on spelling, I described some of the difficulties in spelling English, yet concluded that it is not as difficult as it seems. A deeper analysis of spelling peculiarities shows that our spelling is really more consistent than it seems. For example, the "soft c" is heard only (and always) before the vowel letters e and i (cent, cigar, etc.), while the "hard c" is heard before the other vowels; the vowel a spells the sound in "alone" only in unstressed syllables--that is, syllables that have a weak accent (again, filament, comma, etc.). For another example, you may have heard how ghoti spells "fish"--gh as in cough, o as in women, and ti as in notion. This example, however, is

very unfair to our system of spelling. The letters gh never spell the f sound at the beginning of a word; o spells the i sound only in women; and ti spells the sh sound only in the middle of words.

You should not worry about such matters in beginning courses for adults, however. The literacy teacher's problem is one of teaching the fundamentals of the system, not the complexities. The fundamentals can be taught most easily and successfully if your reading materials are based on the spelling system. Reading and spelling should be taught together, and a reading program that is based on the spelling system is in fact teaching spelling at the same time that it is teaching reading. For example, the most regular spelling is the consonant-vowel-consonant pattern:

cab, gab, jab, etc.

bad, dad, fad, etc.

beg, leg, peg, etc.

den, ken, men, etc.

sick, kick, nick, etc.

dip, hip, lip, etc.

dog, fog, hog, etc.

cot, got, not, etc.

bud, dud, mud, etc.

bum, hum, mum, etc.

These basic regular spellings also hold up in spelling the stressed syllables of long words. For example, notice the regularity of the spelling in cataract, reckon, intermit, derogatory, stumble. There are many more spelling patterns than this, but let's take just one more example--the pattern formed by adding a final e to the consonant-vowel-consonant pattern:

fad, fade

pet, Pete

rip, ripe

rob, robe

tub, tube

It is easy to show that when students learn to respond to these patterns, they learn both to read and to spell thousands of basic English words. This is not, of course, the only way to teach reading or spelling, but it is clearly a rapid productive way. Moreover, it reveals the system that is basic to the spelling of our language. Even if you teach reading in a different way,

it seems only reasonable to suggest that you try to show your students the essentials of the system that underlies English spelling.

When and How to Be a Good Speller

This subject has already been discussed in the section "Why Is Spelling Important?" Here I want only to add some suggestions for teaching. Since good spelling is important simply because people think it is important, you might try to develop in your students two basic attitudes.

The first attitude to develop is an awareness of why and when correct spelling is important--even essential. When someone is filling out an application form for a job or is writing an important communication (such as a business letter), correct spelling is very important if the writer wants to get the desired response. In the eyes of the reader, a badly spelled business letter does not carry much authority. In the eyes of a prospective employer, the applicant who cannot spell correctly is seriously limited in his abilities. This sounds like an unfortunate handicap to carry into the world, but it need not be. If the person has learned the basic spelling

system, he can solve all his spelling problems by getting the habit of turning to a dictionary (cheap paperback dictionaries are available everywhere). Whenever he has doubt about the spelling of a word, he has only to open the dictionary.

A common sense approach to spelling, then, is vitally important. When the student is writing a letter home, he may not care too much about the correct spelling of every word. If he does feel this way--and it is natural enough--there is no reason why he should interrupt his flow of thought by turning every minute to a dictionary. On the other hand, there are times when correct spelling is important, and then he should use a dictionary for every word he is not sure of.

The second attitude to develop is the realization that correct spelling is not a true sign of intelligence--many great writers have been notoriously poor spellers. No one needs to feel inferior because of his spelling ability, but everyone needs to know when correct spelling is important as a social and psychological element in communication. When it is, one can be sure of himself simply by using a dictionary.

Handwriting: The Importance of Handwriting

You can be sure that adults beginning a literacy course will be anxious to learn to write. To most illiterates, writing is an even greater mystery than reading, and to penetrate the dark clouds of that mystery is one of their greatest ambitions. The student who first writes his name experiences a thrill that must be like that of a blind man who has suddenly gained his sight.

But it is, of course, reading and spelling that are the real key to this achievement -- handwriting is just a means. For this reason, the teacher should not overemphasize the importance of good letter formation. Handwriting ability is no reflection of a man's education; if it were, so many highly educated people would not produce so much nearly illegible writing. But this is in fact what is important in handwriting--legibility. Since we want someone to read our writing, we should form our letters so that they can be read. We should not, for example, loop the i or else it will look like e; we should not forget to bring the back of the a down or else it will look like o. (More will be said about legibility in the last section of this chapter.)

One thing is sure--writing one's own name is terribly important, psychologically, to students. You will accomplish a great deal by enabling each student to write his name as soon as possible. But if you make this a teaching goal, you then will have the problem of trying to help the complete illiterate do something for which he is hardly prepared. In addition, you might find yourself in the bad situation of trying to teach each student individually to write his name--meaning that the other students will have too much idle time while waiting for you. Perhaps you can solve both these problems if, before the first class, you write each student's name in his book, having a class exercise in which students first trace over your writing and then try their own first specimens beneath the tracing.

The inexperienced instructor should not take the preceding statements as an infallible guide. If he is uncertain, he should try to follow a well-planned program for teaching literacy classes. My only recommendation is this--remember how important it is psychologically for one to be able to write his own name.

Manuscript or Cursive?

The first question in handwriting instruction is whether to begin with printing (manuscript) or cursive. Some teachers argue for cursive because cursive is the kind of writing that adults naturally want to learn. This is a good reason, too, for motivation which is important in an adult literacy program. But at the LARK Foundation we think that there are better reasons for beginning with manuscript. First, manuscript letters are similar to the print that students are learning to read; thus the first steps in reading and writing reinforce each other. Second, the distinctive features of the letter shapes can be clearly perceived in print but may easily be overlooked in manuscript--that is, for example, the letter b is a bar with a loop at the right (b); but if students begin with cursive, these essential features may get lost in looping the bar and in connecting the b with its neighboring letters (*able*). Besides, many job situations require printing, and a printed signature is just as acceptable as a written signature--even on a check. Finally, when students have learned manuscript, the transition to cursive comes naturally and easily.

Teaching Handwriting

Teaching handwriting is much easier if the students have a simple easy-to-use program. Published handwriting programs show students clear examples of both manuscript and cursive letters, as well as the directions and sequences of strokes that are taken in writing the letters. A few clear pages, such as the samples that are shown on page 109, are most helpful to students, especially when each student has these pages in front of him for his own use.

Use the kind of lined paper shown in the samples, and start by teaching the capitals. Explain that we use two alphabets: one of capital, or large, letters; the other of small letters. We use capital letters for the first letter of the first word of each sentence, thus making reading easier by signaling the start of a new sentence. We also show names of people and places by capitalizing the first letter of each word in the name.

A few students may have trouble holding a pencil steady enough to write. These people will need a good deal of patient encouragement. Forming the lines and circles of the letters in the air will help them to relax

and get the feel of writing. Be sure that the student has a printed alphabet in front of him and that he can read at least the ltters he is attempting to write. Always have him say the name of the letter he is writing. By moving the forefinger through the air, he can practice the letter shapes that he is about to try to write on paper.

At some time or other, it may help some students to practice writing the basic strokes in letter formation--straight lines and curves. Straight lines are used as verticals, horizontals, and diagonals (| — \ /); circles are used as large, small or semi-circles (O o C c). These basic shapes combine as follows:

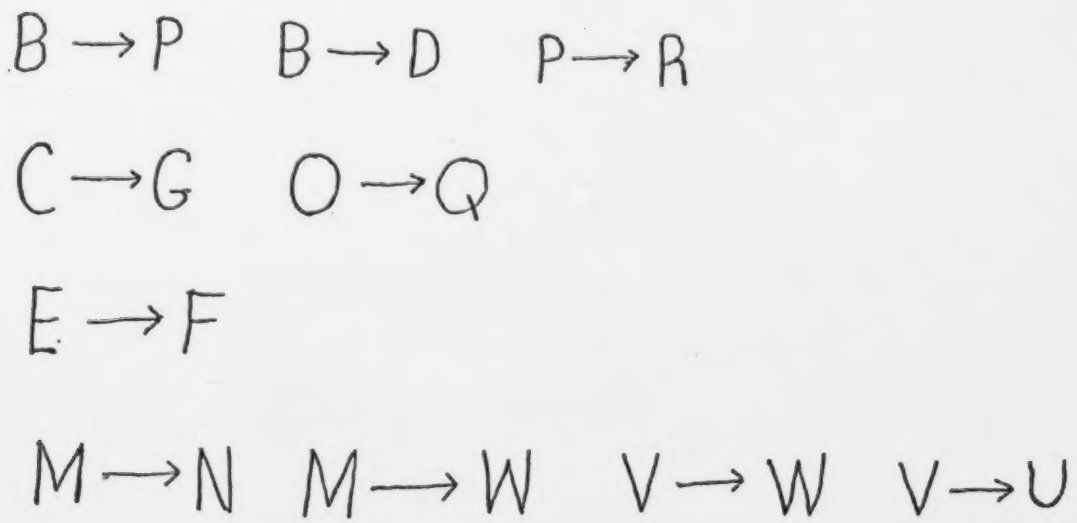
Verticals and horizontals: E F H I L T

Verticals, horizontals, and diagonals:
A K M N V W X Y Z

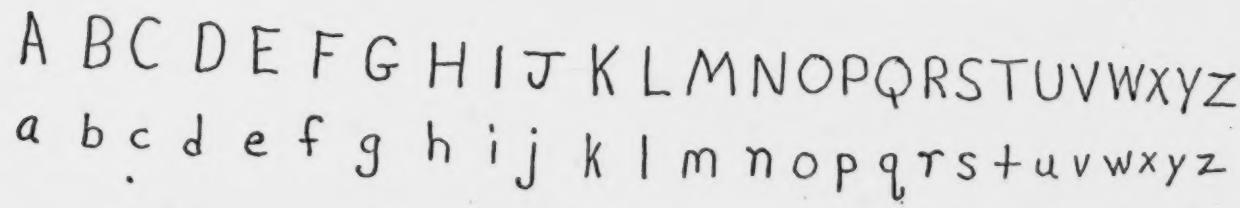
Circles: C G O Q S

Circles and straight lines: B D J P R U

If your students are still at the beginning reading level, you can combine reading and writing by teaching letters according to their basic contrasts, as in the following:



When students have learned the large alphabet, show them the small-letter alphabet printed just below the capitals:



To learn the small letters, students must refine their muscle control and learn just a few new strokes. By following the directions given for letter formation in any handwriting program, students will quickly gain control over the small letters.

Teaching Cursive

At this stage of the program, transition to cursive becomes relatively easy. For example, take the word "hill." To turn manuscript into cursive, the student simply joins the letters:

The only letters that are really different in cursive are e, f, k, r, s, v, and z. Even with these letters, most changes are small. They are no great challenge to the student who has already learned the other alphabets. If your students have work pages that indicate the direction of the strokes in letter formation, have them follow the arrows and trace the letter shapes with their fingers before putting pencil to paper. Be sure that in their first attempts they always keep these model pages open before them.

Remember

In teaching handwriting to adults you are not trying to train artists, and you are not trying to make everyone write the same way. The important thing is legibility--and writing that is easy to read is good writing. Whenever your students practice, stress the

following features as being important for legible writing:

1. Letters should be the same relative size. (Wrong: it)

2. Straight lines should be parallel. (Wrong: tightly)

3. Loop letters such as e should be open; closed letters such as i should be closed. (Wrong: Chief)

4. Circles should be closed. (Wrong: frug).

5. Enough space should be left between letters and extra space between words. (Wrong: mybook)

Taken from Literacy Instructor's Handbook by Mary C. Wallace. Follet Publishing Co., Chicago, 1965

PART III

MATERIAL PREPARATION

CHAPTER VIII

Preparation of Literacy Materials

Collecting and Preparing Materials

If necessity is the mother of invention, imagination may well be the father. Most teachers will find the necessity for inventing their own materials and, perhaps to their own surprise, will soon find they also have the ingenuity to provide it. In most cases, the teacher need only turn a sensitive ear and an observing eye toward her class to see what materials her students need and want to work with. Most students know only too well what they want to learn or read, or they would not be in the class at all.

Perhaps the main points to remember in choosing or designing materials are that the basic skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic should always be taught via something the student wants to know or ought to know. Look at the current, the concrete, the timely, the practical, and the close at hand. Do not shy away from the unorthrodox

if it will do the job. If the reading materials that would fill the bill are too difficult for the group, rewrite them in simplified form.

Even the most outstanding examples of published materials will never be up-to-date and personal enough to tell the student what he really wants to know today. And certainly arithmetic, that most abstract of sciences, is best taught by means of concrete, useful examples. It is therefore the teacher's responsibility to supplement or even replace commercial materials with items of current value and individual importance to the students.

What might be called the pack-rat technique is a useful way of accumulating materials day by day. As items are added to the teacher's collection, it may begin to resemble a little boy's top drawer, so there should be some effort at categorizing the contents. Items may be coded and filed by subject, readability level, and any other helpful designation. Some may be duplicated for class use.

What sort of items should be collected? Some of the current materials and concrete objects which teachers have found useful include: household objects such as

measuring cups and spoons for teaching science or math (especially weights and measurements); checkbooks; city and county maps; tax forms; pamphlets from drug companies about prenatal or child care; election ballots; play food; cosmetic kits; and even old telephone directories, to name just a few.

One ABE coordinator collected several hundred old telephone books when the new books came out and used these as the class test in a city wide program. By looking up different names, students learned how to use a dictionary. The yellow pages were an endless source of information about the community. Students learned about the services of different businesses and government agencies, learned where the health department was located, and even discovered the library.

Teachers have long realized that the local newspaper is virtually a cornucopia of teaching materials. Often free copies can be obtained for each member of the class. Shopping lists can be made from the food advertisements--a practical way of teaching nutrition, mathematics and writing. Recipes, too, offer practical arithmetic problems as well as good homemaking advice.

Fractions, decimals, ounces, and dollars spring to life when they are discussed in terms of quarter pounds of butter or comparisons of two cans of peas at different prices.

Want ads, articles on local politics, advertisements, speeches on important local or national issues--all these are found in the newspaper ready to be read, discussed, and used to teach various subjects. For students with little reading ability, articles in newspapers (magazines are a good source, too) may have to be rewritten by the teacher and presented in a simplified version. This will also be necessary, in some cases, when informative pamphlets from business, industry, or government are used as teaching materials.

Local small town weeklies have the double advantage of being easy to read and appealing to the students. Or, the teacher may wish to subscribe to News for You, a weekly newspaper published especially for ABE students on two reading levels by the Syracuse University Press. In many programs the students will find the Grit Newspaper a status symbol and they will want to subscribe to it. (14)

Independent Reading

Now how do we start independent reading? The adult students begin by reading what interests them. The teacher does not have to worry about motivating these people. They would not be in the class in the first place if they were not motivated. Give them the opportunity to work in groups or by themselves.

Materials

Where do they find reading materials?

1. They bring them from their home:

newspapers	children's books
catalogs	paperbacks
Bibles	magazines
letters	cookbooks
comics	telephone books
T. V. Guides	

2. They bring them from the school library or the local library.

3. The teacher makes reading material available from the ABE resource library.

4. The teacher provides in the room:

newspapers	crossword puzzles
comics	Drivers Manuals
catalogs	dictionaries
signs	cookbooks

magazines (Life, Woman's Day, etc.) (6)

Teaching Adults to Read with Teacher-Made Materials from Frances Lane Harris (7)

IN THE STATE OF WASHINGTON illiteracy is only 0.9% according to the 1965 NEA Ranking of States, yet there were 12,828 adults who said in the 1960 census that they had less than one year of schooling and 41,014 who had completed one to four years only.

Most of the ones I know seem intelligent and are well dressed; many are employed. Some work as laborers in lumber or plywood mills or other industries, and some work as carpenters, truck drivers, longshoremen , butchers, or welders. But what a feeling of inadequacy they have!! A typical comment is, "My son is in the third grade and he can read anything. I must learn to read, too." Another, wanting homework so as to learn even faster, said, "I can't start my homework until after 9:00 P. M. because that's when my boy goes to bed, and I don't want him to know I can't read." One wife said, "I tried to teach my husband to read but he always said his eyes hurt or he was too tired. When he first came to this class, his eyes hurt too, but he kept coming to class anyway. Now they don't hurt any more." One spoke of a friend who tried to teach him, "but he didn't go

back far enough and he expected me to learn too fast." Another quoted himself as telling his wife, "Teacher doesn't yell at us."

Remarks like these reaffirmed my desire to help these people to learn to read and write. The Economic Opportunity Act has established classes in Basic Adult Education. I happened to be the first teacher to have such a class in our area. Because I had no instructional materials at first, I was forced to construct my own. Later while using some published materials, students made remarks such as "I liked it better when you wrote those stories." I believe that there are some advantages to teacher-made materials and that the readers of the Journal of Reading may be interested in some remarks concerning my methods.

My class consisted largely of men who could read and write only their own names, but most of them could form letters and knew the names of most of the letters. Some knew letter sounds and a few words. Others who could "read" were put in another class with a second teacher. My problem was to teach consonant sounds to some, to review with others, to start building a basic

vocabulary, but most of all to hold their interest and help them feel that they were learning and could continue to improve.

I started by teaching consonant sounds using several methods but especially one of writing lists of words which the students would supply themselves, listing as many words as they could think of for one initial consonant sound. I usually wrote these words on an overhead projector but a chalkboard was satisfactory too. When we had a dozen or more words beginning with this consonant, we read the list orally before going on to another consonant. The words adults suggest are not necessarily the same ones that children would think of in a similar lesson. They did serve the same purposes of focusing auditory and visual attention on initial consonants. Writing the upper and lower case form of the consonant at the top of the list emphasized the letter under consideration. I always wrote the list in manuscript writing, explaining that it looked more like the print in books and that manuscript writing would be useful in filling out any forms, especially those that say "Please print." The process of listing their words gave the

flexibility needed in a group with such a range of knowledge. For the beginners, recognizing the consonant sounds was the one goal, with little memory of sight words. There was opportunity, however, for any who were ready to remember the total word form in order to build up a vocabulary. Some found themselves remembering forgotten words.

All this was a necessary preliminary to being ready to read about something interesting. Enthusiasm grows in these adults when they learn something about their own community while they are learning words. My most successful lessons centered on stories I myself wrote for a particular group of students. Yes, it took time, but since the stories were very short, it was not as difficult to do as one might think.

My main source of information was the local newspaper. For example, I wrote a series of stories explaining an oil drilling rig which was currently rising on our skyline. Since it was a subject of community curiosity, a newspaper article explained some details of its construction and that it would soon be launched into the Columbia River and floated downstream and thence via the

Pacific Ocean to Cook Inlet in Alaska. From this one detailed newspaper account, I had basic facts for stories which made a series of lessons for adult beginning readers. These stories had a lot of compelling interest and, in addition, gave these illiterate adults information that they could explain knowledgeably to their families and friends.

For these stories I tried to limit the vocabulary only moderately. However, I typed them in very large type which only allowed about 12 lines to a page, composed short sentences of six to eight words for added ease of attack, and prepared a pre-reading sheet for word analysis so that before the student tried to read the story, he had been guided in vocabulary study. The worksheet also involved him in marking root words, endings, and various other aids toward word analysis. Sometimes I selected words from the story and placed them in columns according to the vowel rules they fit. Sometimes I made columns of a dozen identical words in mixed order, each column a different form such as lower and upper case, manuscript, cursive, or various sizes of type. The student found the corresponding word in each column

and drew a connecting line.

Usually I presented much of the word analysis on the overhead projector or chalkboard before the students did the worksheets. Silent reading of the story followed completion of the worksheet. During this reading time I supplied words to those who had difficulty remembering so that more fluid reading would aid in comprehension.

After most students had completed reading the page silently, I found that they felt comfortably reinforced by re-reading it together orally. It must have sounded like an old-fashioned school, but the togetherness seemed to appeal. The shy ones might not join in aloud at first, but their eyes followed the words and eventually they felt confident enough to join in.

This method of using short teacher-made stories had several advantages. There was high interest in the content. Individuals sometimes added special knowledge to supplement the information because it was a local story. It served as a vehicle for structural and phonetic analysis which could fit a wide student range of ability. Since the story was short, all words could be analyzed for the benefit of beginners or for review, but the freshness

of the topic and the natural vocabulary provided something new for everyone. Since it was written for an exact group of students, the teacher could more nearly meet their diverse needs than anything in a book could. The teacher was aware of the degree of difficulty in reading level as well as of the appropriateness of the topic in relation to student culture and background.

James T. Olsen, in the October, 1965, Journal of Reading, discussed some problems that educational publishers have in preparing instructional materials for the varied needs of the adult market. A teacher preparing her own materials may be able to fit the interests and needs of the class better than a publisher who tried to publish for the average or composite students.

In the March, 1966, Journal of Reading, Stanley L. Rosner and Gerald Schatz discussed another way of writing personalized stories by having the student himself dictate the story. They said, "It is remarkable to note that vocabulary that otherwise would be classed well above the level of competence for these persons can be readily learned when it comes from the student's own need for expression." I have found this also true of

the short teacher-made stories written on a topic of local interest.

Thus teacher-made stories can serve as a vehicle for vocabulary building as well as phonetic and structural analysis. Perhaps the greatest advantage is interest in the subject matter because it is written to fit the particular class and uses topics of local interest. Our local newspaper has contained information on which to base many stories this past year. Another popular theme was that of local history with stories giving informational background for points of historical interest where families might visit. A brochure available at one of the city museums provided accurate, concise facts needed in writing the series on local history. Other lessons centered around words seen every day. These evoked surprising comments. There was an argument one night about stop lights because of differing lights that read "WAIT" or "DON'T WALK." After a lesson using street names, one man who worked on a garbage truck began noticing street signs. I was surprised to realize how many different highway signs we encountered daily. Some lessons compared the appearance of

the words on these signs when they appear in the capitalized forms. The important point is that a teacher can easily find subject matter for simple lessons which will interest beginning adult readers.

I would like to add a thought concerning primary teachers as adult literacy teachers. A primary teacher is familiar with the gradual steps for teaching beginning reading. The sequence of skills for developmental reading is automatic to her. If she is a resourceful person, she can easily adapt materials to adults. Teachers used to working with older children probably find it difficult to go "far enough back" and to progress with the very small steps that are needed by adults who are beginning readers.

A primary teacher only needs to keep in mind that these students are adults and should not be treated as children. Perhaps it is best never to mention that she teaches children or to refer to anything she does with her daytime class. I found this surprisingly easy to do. After all, the adults were there before me and their maturity and background of experience were obvious. I was very aware of their sensitivity about their shortcomings

and always tried to weigh my words to avoid anything that could possibly hurt any feelings. But this seemed as natural as with any adult whose friendship one values.

Work with adult literacy is a fascinating kind of teaching, for it would seem that all of a teacher's ingenuity and resourcefulness can never be quite enough to teach all kinds of students fast enough. Yet the little cummulative successes bring the kind of emotional regard that makes a teacher proud to have persevered. (6)

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